

## (Solid State) Unit - III      Band Theory

- (\*) Draw the band diagram of n-type and p-type semiconductor?  
 (ii) Draw the band diagram of p-n diode  
 (iii) Define direct band gap and indirect

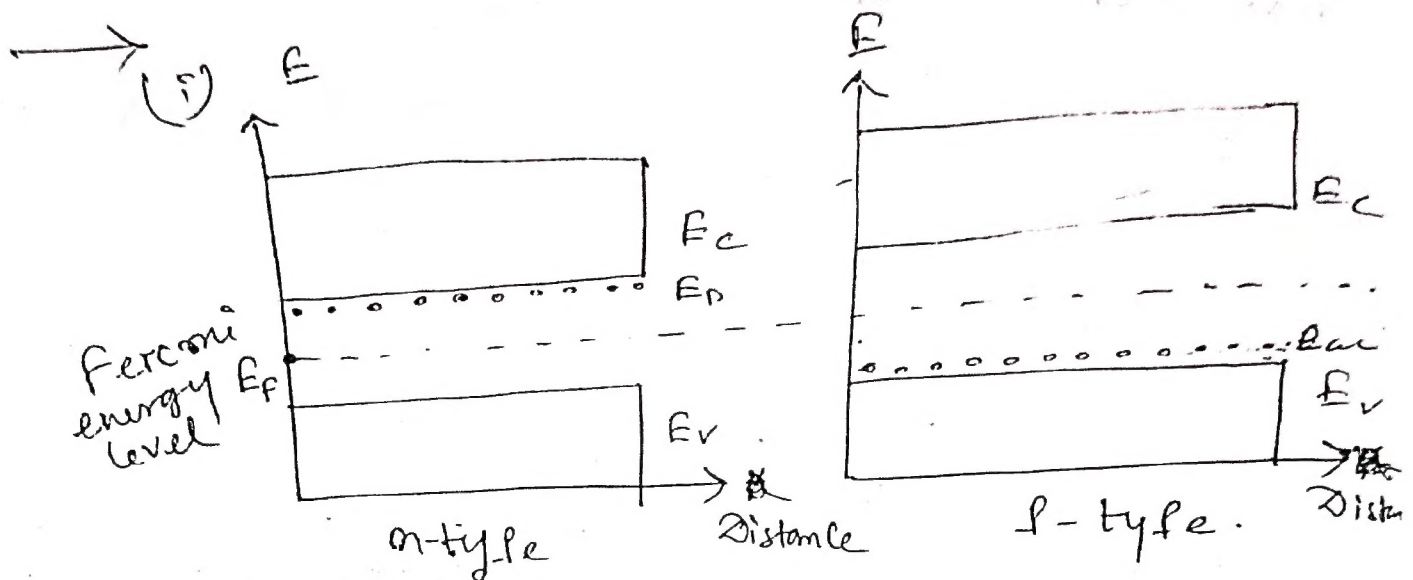
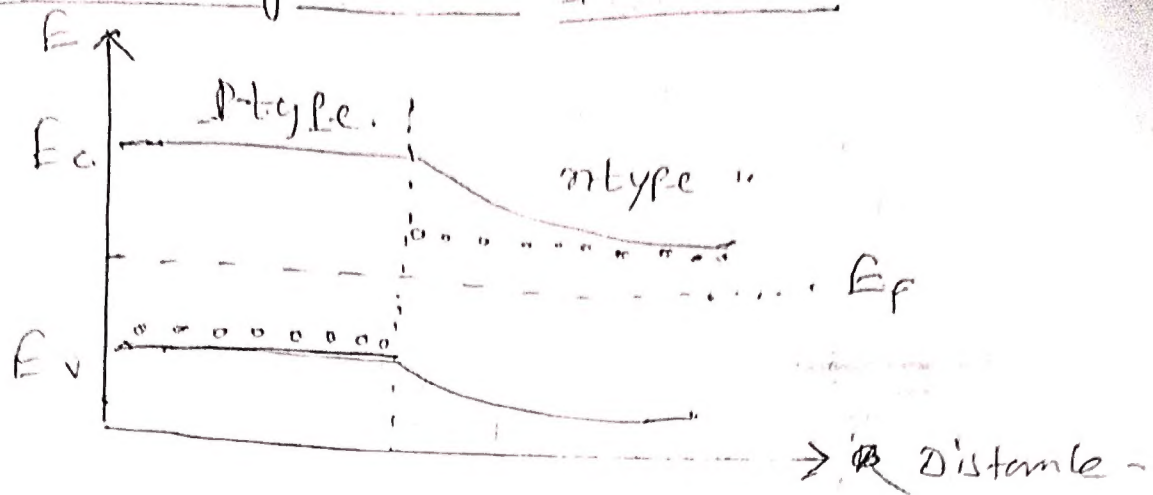


fig: energy diagram for p-type and n-type semiconductor.

In an n-type extrinsic semiconductor the electrons are near the conduction band and few holes exist near valence band, so it is expected that the Fermi level moves closer to conduction band for an n-type semiconductor.

Similarly in p-type semiconductor with many holes near the valence band and some electron near the conduction band, so the Fermi level moves closer to valence band.

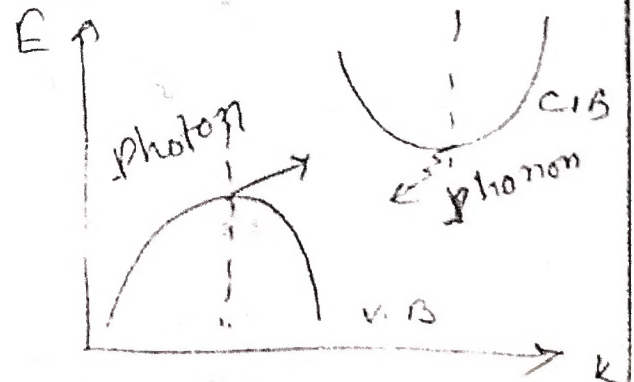
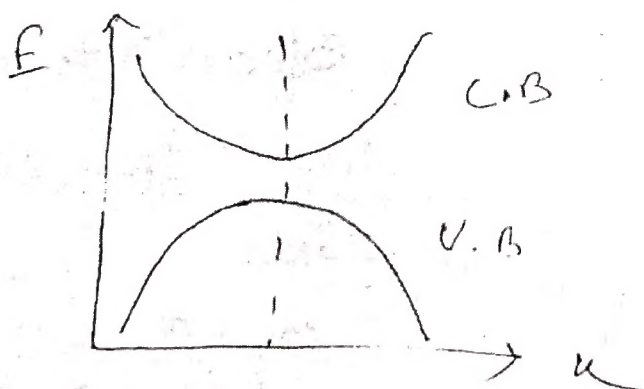
## Band Diagram for p-n diode:-



⑩ What do you mean by direct and indirect band gap:

The ~~minimum~~ <sup>energy in</sup> value of conduction band and ~~maximum~~ <sup>value</sup> energy in valence band ~~are~~ <sup>are</sup> characterized by a certain value of  $k$  (crystal momentum) in the Brillouin zone.

If the  $k$  (crystal momentum) vector is same for C.B and V.B the band gap is called direct gap. and if the crystal momentum vector is different the band gap is called indirect band gap.



### (i) State Bloch theorem

According to free electron theory, an electron moves in a constant potential  $V_0$ , the Schrodinger wave eqn is given by,

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E - V_0) \psi = 0 \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

The solution of above eqn is given by,  $\psi(x) = A e^{\pm i k x}$

$$\text{Where, } k = \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E - V_0)$$

$$\hbar^2 (E - V_0) = \frac{k^2 \hbar^2}{2m} = \frac{p^2}{2m} = E$$

In a crystal lattice an electron moves in a periodic potential  $V(x)$ .

The Schrodinger wave eqn is given by

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \{E - V(x)\} \psi = 0 \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

$V(x+a) = V(x)$  where  $a$  is lattice const.

This is known as Bloch theorem

The solution of eqn (ii) is given by,

$$\psi_k(x) = U_k(x) e^{\pm i k x}$$

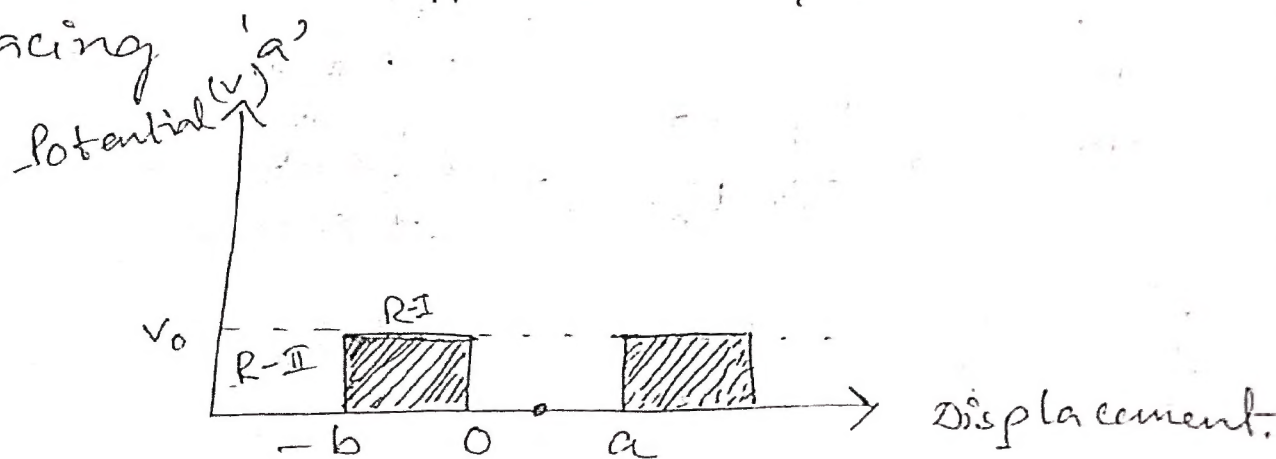
$U_k(x)$  = Periodicity of potential.



- Q (i) Prove Kronig-Penney model of Band Theory  
 (ii) Draw Band Diagram from Kronig-Penney model.

→ (i) Kronig-Penney Model:

The potential of electron varies periodically with periodicity of ion-core (nucleus) and the potential of electron is zero near nucleus and maximum, when it is lying between adjacent nuclei which are separated by inter-atomic spacing 'a'.



Applying Schrodinger time independent eqn<sup>n</sup>,

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E - V) \psi = 0$$

For Region-II,

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} E \psi = 0 \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

For Region-I,

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E - V_0) \psi = 0 \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

$$\therefore \frac{d^2 \psi}{dx^2} + \alpha^2 \psi = 0 \quad \text{--- (iii)}$$

$$\therefore \frac{d^2 \psi}{dx^2} - \beta^2 \psi = 0 \quad \text{--- (iv)}$$

$$\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} E = \alpha^2$$

$$\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E - V_0) = -\beta^2$$

From Bloch theorem of the soln of Schrodinger eqn for a periodic potential.

$$\therefore \psi_k(x) = e^{ikx} U_k(x)$$

$$\frac{d\psi}{dx} = e^{ikx} U'_k(x) + (ik) U_k(x) e^{ikx} \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} U_k(x) \\ \text{periodicity} \\ \text{of the} \\ \text{crystal} \\ \text{lattice.} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\frac{d^2 \psi}{dx^2} = (ik) e^{ikx} U'_k(x) + e^{ikx} U''_k(x)$$

$$- k^2 U_k(x) e^{ikx} +$$

$$(ik) e^{ikx} U'_k(x)$$

$$= e^{ikx} U''_k(x) + 2ik e^{ikx} U'_k(x)$$

$$- k^2 U_k(x) e^{ikx} \quad \text{--- (v)}$$

Using eqn (v) in eqn (iii) & (iv)

$$\frac{d^2 U_k(x)}{dx^2} + 2ik \frac{dU_k(x)}{dx} + (\alpha^2 - k^2) U_k(x) = 0 \quad \text{--- (vi)}$$

$$\frac{d^2 U_k(x)}{dx^2} + 2ik \frac{dU_k(x)}{dx} - (k^2 + \beta^2) U_k(x) = 0 \quad \text{--- (vii)}$$

General solution of equ<sup>n</sup> (vi) and (vii) is given by,

$$U_1 = A e^{i(\alpha - k)x} + B e^{-i(\alpha + k)x} \quad \text{--- (ix)}$$

$$U_2 = C e^{(\beta - ik)x} + D e^{-(\beta + ik)x} \quad \text{--- (x)}$$

Solution of equ<sup>n</sup> (10) and (9) given by,

$$\boxed{\frac{P}{\alpha a} \sin \alpha a + \cos \alpha a = \cos k a}$$

This is known as Kronig Penney Model.

$P$  = Power of Potential.

Case - 1 :  $P \rightarrow \infty$

$$\frac{\sin \alpha a}{\alpha a} = 0$$

$$\therefore \alpha a = n\pi$$

$$\therefore \alpha = \frac{n\pi}{a}$$

$$\therefore \alpha^2 = \frac{n^2 \pi^2}{a^2} \Rightarrow \frac{2mE}{\hbar^2} = \frac{n^2 \pi^2}{a^2} \Rightarrow E = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2ma^2}$$

This case represents insulators.

Case 0:  $\parallel$

$$P \rightarrow 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \cos \alpha a = \cos ka$$

$$\therefore \alpha a = ka$$

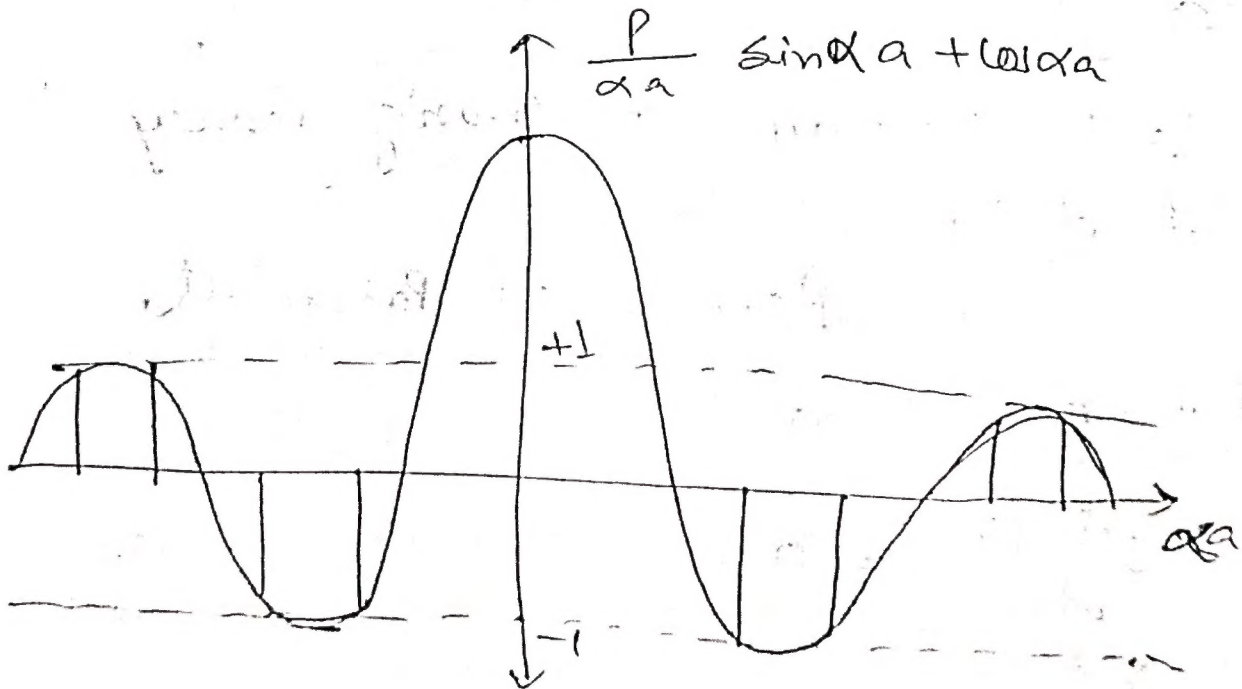
$$\therefore \alpha = k$$

$$\text{So, } \alpha^2 = k^2$$

$$\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2} = k^2$$

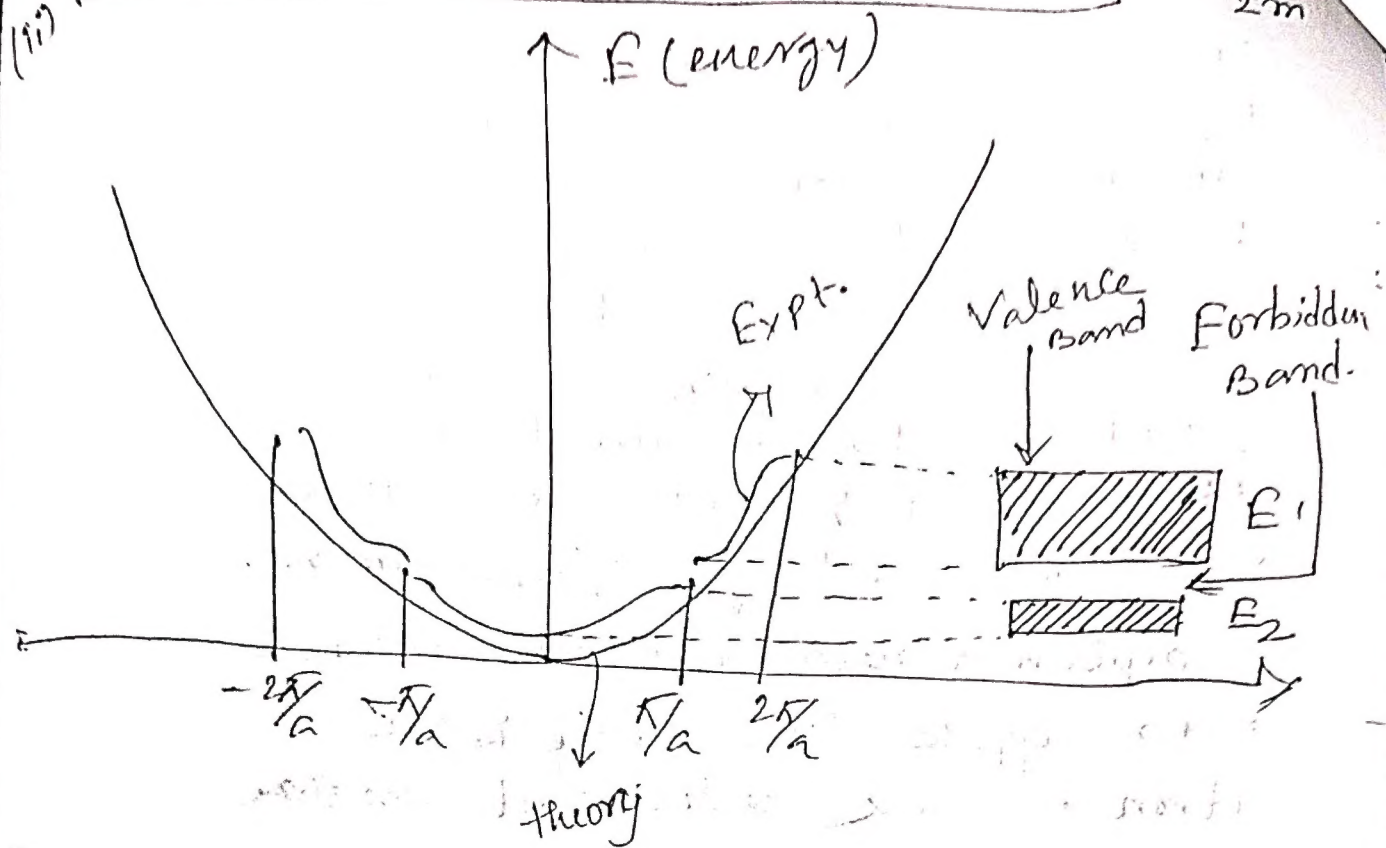
$$\therefore E = \frac{k^2 \hbar^2}{2m} = \frac{p^2}{2m}$$

$\therefore$  for metals -  
Variation of  $\frac{P}{\alpha a} \sin \alpha a + \cos \alpha a$  Vs  $\alpha a$ .





(\*)  $E-k$  curve for free electron:  $E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}$



(\*) (i) What do you mean by "effective mass"?

(ii) Write down the significance of "effective mass".

→ The energy of free electron,  $E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}$

$m$  is called effective mass of electron.

From free electron theory the  $E-k$  graph represents a parabola which changes periodically with  $\frac{dE}{dk}$  remains const.

But when an electron moves through a periodic potential in a lattice crystal the relation between  $E-k$  is no longer true and curvature of  $E-k$  graph changes.

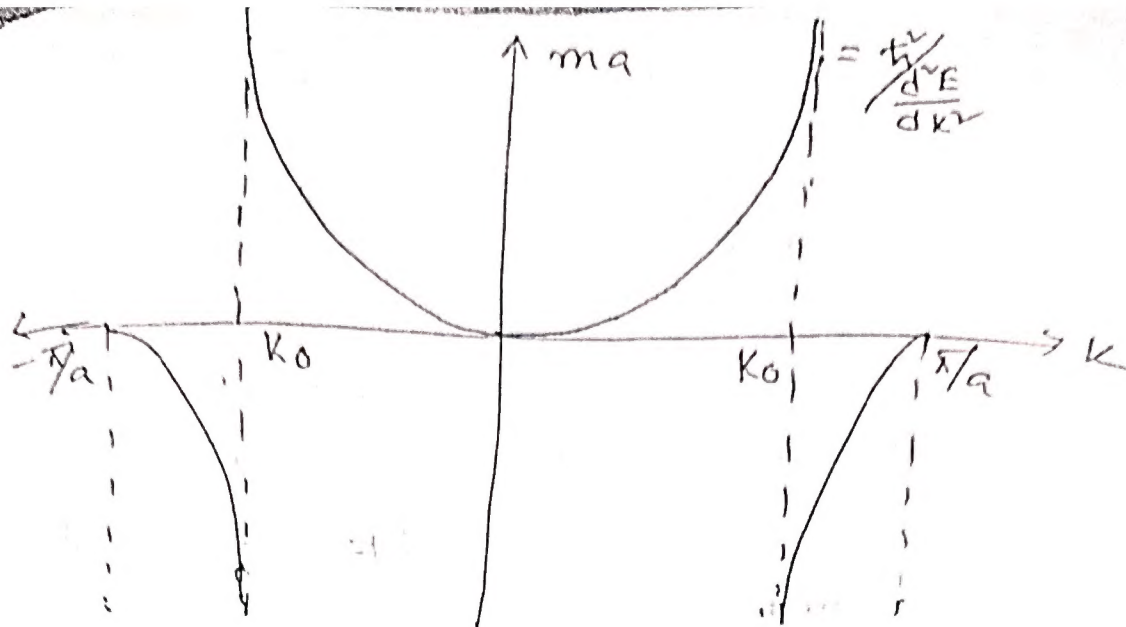


## Significance of effective mass:

The effective mass is a ~~real~~ <sup>not</sup> concept and arises because of the interaction of the electron wave packet with the periodic lattice. If there is strong binding force between the electron and the lattice, it will be difficult for the electrons to move, meaning thereby that the electron has acquired a large effective mass.

To explain a negative effective mass, let us suppose that there is an electron, with  $k$  value just less than  $\pi/a$  at the boundary. It will manage to make through the crystal. But then suppose that a field is applied which should accelerate it ~~is~~ and increase  $k$ . As the electron respond to the field it will meet the condition for Bragg reflection and will be scattered back in the opposite direction. In this way, it will behave like a particle with negative charge and negative mass.

It is clear that the effective mass is positive in the lower part of the band (lower value of  $k$ ) and negative in upper band (higher value of  $k$ )

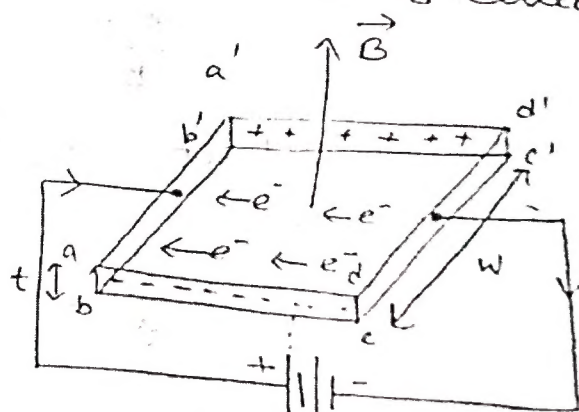


Q. Define Hall-effect. Q. Discuss Hall-effect for a conductor?

→ It was suggested by Prof. E. H. Hall, 1897. A magnetic field is applied perpendicular to the direction of current in a conductor, then a transverse electric field is developed. This electric field is perpendicular to both the direction of current and magnetic field. This phenomenon of production of electric field is known as "Hall effect". This field is called Hall field.

(ii) When a magnetic field applied, then  $e^-$ s are feel some force, which is

$$\vec{F} = -e(\vec{v}_d \times \vec{B}),$$



$v_d$  = drift velocity,  
and will accumulate there it makes face abcd -ve and  $a'b'c'd'$  is +ve. as a result a potential diff<sup>n</sup> or Hall voltage ( $V_H$ ) is produced.

force produced is in the same direction.

Force due to Magnetic field,

Force due to Magnetic field,

$$F_B = e V_d B \sin 90^\circ$$

$$= e V_d B \rightarrow (1)$$

Magnitude of force due to electric field,

$$F_E = e E_H \rightarrow (2)$$

at equilibrium,

$$F_B = F_E$$

$$\Rightarrow e V_d B = e E_H$$

$$\Rightarrow V_d = \frac{E_H}{B} \rightarrow (3)$$

The current in slab,

$$I = A n e V_d$$

$$I = w t n e V_d$$

$$[\because A = w t]$$

$$V_d = \frac{I}{w t n e} \rightarrow (4)$$

using eqn (3) and (4),

$$\frac{E_H}{B} = \frac{I}{w t n e} \rightarrow (5)$$

$$\text{But, } E_H = \frac{V_H}{w} \rightarrow (6)$$

$$\text{from (5), } \frac{V_H}{w B} = \frac{I}{w t n e}$$

$$\therefore V_H = \left( \frac{1}{n e} \right) \cdot \frac{B I}{t}$$

this is the expression of Hall voltage,

$$\text{Hall co-efficient, } = \frac{1}{n e} = \frac{V_H t}{B I}$$

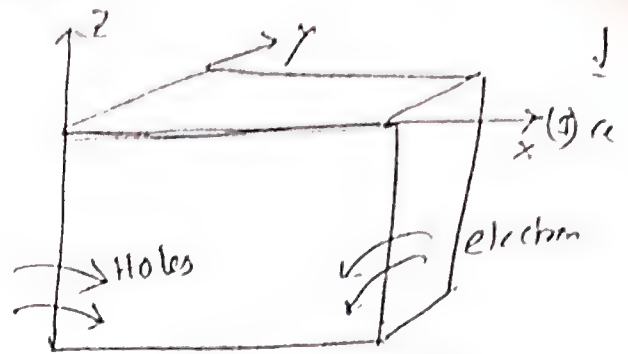
$$\text{Hall resistance, } R_H = \frac{V_H}{I} = \frac{B}{n e t}$$



Hall coefficient is +ve for p-type semiconductor, and -ve for n-type semiconductor.

Q. Discuss Hall-effect for p-n diode semiconductor?

→ we consider a rectangular block of p-n diode semiconductor subjected to a electric field or current, along x-axis this will arise current



density  $J_x$  in x-axis, electric field  $E_x$  in x-axis,

let a magnetic field  $B_z$  is applied along z axis, the effect of magnetic field applied a force on the charge carrier in ~~neg~~ -ve y-direction.

Both holes and electrons are drifted to the front surface, some of the holes and electrons recombined in the front surface. But there is a net surface charge on the front surface. The current density  $J_x$  due to electric field  $E_x$ .

$$J_x = \underbrace{n e \mu_e E_x}_{\text{for } e^-} + \underbrace{p e \mu_p E_x}_{\text{for holes}}$$

Due to  $e^-$ , electric field is developed in -ve y-direction.

$$E_y = -\gamma_x B_z$$

$$E_y = -\mu_e E_x B_z \quad \mu_e = \frac{v_x}{E_x} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$n$ : no. of  $e^-$  per unit volume

$p$ : no. of hole's per unit volume

$\mu_e$ : mobility of  $e^-$

$\mu_p$ : " " holes

So, current density in y-direction due to electrons

$$J_{ye} = -n e \mu_e E_y$$

$$= n e \mu_e^2 E_x B_z \quad \text{--- (2) [using (1)]}$$

to holes,

$$J_{yh} = -pe\mu_p^r E_x B_z \rightarrow \textcircled{\text{iii}} \quad [\text{as charge is } +ve]$$

So, current density in y-direction,

$$J_y = J_{ye} + J_{yh}$$

$$= eE_x B_z (n\mu_e^r - p\mu_p^r)$$

At equilibrium the current density in x-direction = current density in y-direction.

$$J_x = J_y$$

$$\Rightarrow ne\mu_e E_x + pe\mu_p E_x = eE_x B_z (n\mu_e^r - p\mu_p^r)$$

$$\Rightarrow B_z = \frac{n\mu_e + p\mu_p}{n\mu_e^r - p\mu_p^r}$$

$$\text{Now, } R_H = \frac{-\mu_e E_x B_z + \mu_p E_x B_z}{ne\mu_e E_x + pe\mu_p E_x}$$

$$R_H = \frac{\mu_p - \mu_e}{ne\mu_e + pe\mu_p}$$

\* Find hall-co-efficient of p-type semiconductor with concentration of holes.  $3 \times 10^{26} \text{ m}^{-3}$ , Hence Find the mobility. If the conductivity is  $10^{-7} \text{ } (\Omega \cdot \text{m})^{-1}$ .

$$\rightarrow R_H = \frac{\mu_p - \mu_e}{ne\mu_e + pe\mu_p} = \frac{1}{nq} = \frac{1}{3 \times 10^{26} \times 1.6 \times 10^{-19}}$$

$$\mu = R_H \sigma = 0.208 \times 10^{-7} \times 10^{-7} = 0.208 \times 10^{-14} \text{ m}^2/\text{Vs}$$

## Superconductivity

- (i) Explain superconductivity with an example.  
(ii) Define Transition Temperature.

→ (i) We know that conductivity of metal increases with a decreasing in temperature.

Theoretically resistivity of a metal,  $\rho = \rho_0 (1 + \alpha T)$

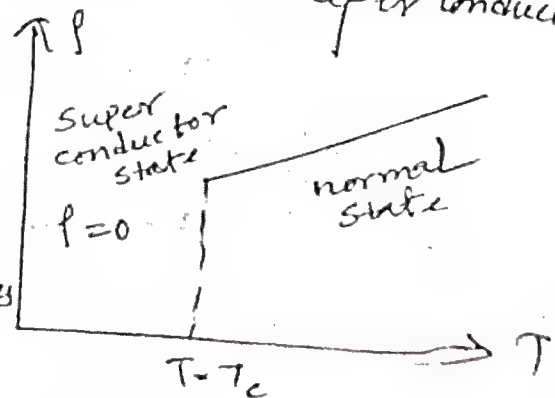


$\alpha$  = Temperature  
co-efficient of  
Resistivity.  
 $T$  = Temp (K). e

Fig: Theoretical graph of  $\rho$  vs  $T$  for Conductor.

But in Practical case for many conductors and alloy. It's observed that with decreasing temperature resistivity decreases and at a certain temperature the resistivity is become zero, that's conductivity infinity. This metals and alloys are known as superconductors and this phenomenon is known as superconductivity.

In 1911 1st time superconductivity was observed by scientist K. Onnes for mercury (Hg) at temp. 4.34 K by using liquid He.





(ii) Transition Temperature: The temp. at which normal conductor and alloy are converted to superconductor. is known as transition temperature.

for Hg transition temp. 4.2 K.

(\*) Write down a practical use of superconductor.  
→ In MRI machine superconductors are used to diagnose disease in a human body.

(\*) Write down 2 important properties of superconductor?

→ (i) Resistivity of a superconductor is zero

(ii) A superconductor is a perfect diamagnet with susceptibility  $\chi = -1$

(\*) State Meissner effect of superconductor.  
→ The total magnetic field through a conductor

$$\vec{B}_{\text{net}} = \mu_0 (\vec{M} + \vec{H}_{\text{applied}})$$
 where  $\vec{M}$  is magnetization vector.

For a superconductor the net magnetic field is zero, the magnetic field applied to the superconductor is repelled by the internal magnetic field or magnetization of the superconductor.

from (i)  $\vec{B}_{\text{net}} = 0$ ,

$$\Rightarrow \vec{M} + \vec{H}_{\text{applied}} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\vec{M}}{\vec{H}_{\text{applied}}} = -1$$

→ No -1

For a perfect diamagnet magnetic susceptibility  $\chi$  is -1, that is superconductors behave as perfect diamagnet. This phenomenon is known as Meissner effect.

(\*) Define critical magnetic field at which and superconductor critical current density?

→ The magnetic field at which a superconductor becomes a normal conductor is called critical magnetic field ( $H_c$ ).

Critical magnetic field destroys the superconductivity of the material. Critical magnetic field depends on temperature, the empirical or experimental relation between  $H_c$  and  $T$  is given by,

$$H_c(T) = H_c(0) \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{T}{T_c} \right)^2 \right], \quad T < T_c$$

where  $H_c(0)$  = critical magnetic field at 0 kelvin

$= 0, \quad T > T_c$

When current flows through a superconductor, this critical current is sufficient to produce critical magnetic field for the superconductor.

Conducting state will be destroyed. This limit of current is known as critical current ( $I_c$ ) and corresponding current density is called critical current density ( $J_c$ ).

Critical Current Density depends on the temperature. The empirical relation between current density  $J_c$  and temperature  $T$  is given by

$$J_c(T) = J_c(0) \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{T}{T_c} \right)^2 \right], T < T_c$$

$T_c$  = critical temp.

$$= 0, T > T_c$$

$J_c(0)$  = critical current density at 0K.

$T$  = Temp. in Kelvin

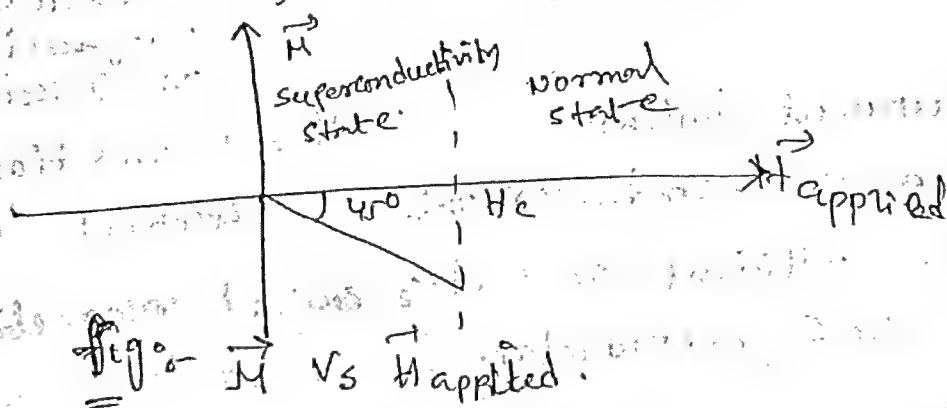
For good Superconductor  $T_c, H_c, J_c$  should be high.

⊛ Define Type-1 and Type-2 Superconductor with Example.

→ The Superconductors which follow Meissner effect is called Type-1 Superconductor.

Type-1 Superconductor has one value of critical magnetic field.

Ex. of type-1 SS :- Hg, Pb, Nb etc.



The Superconductor which does not follow Meissner effect and has 2-critical magnetic field is known as Type-2 Superconductor.

Ex —  $Nb_3Sn$ ,  $Nb_3Al$  etc.



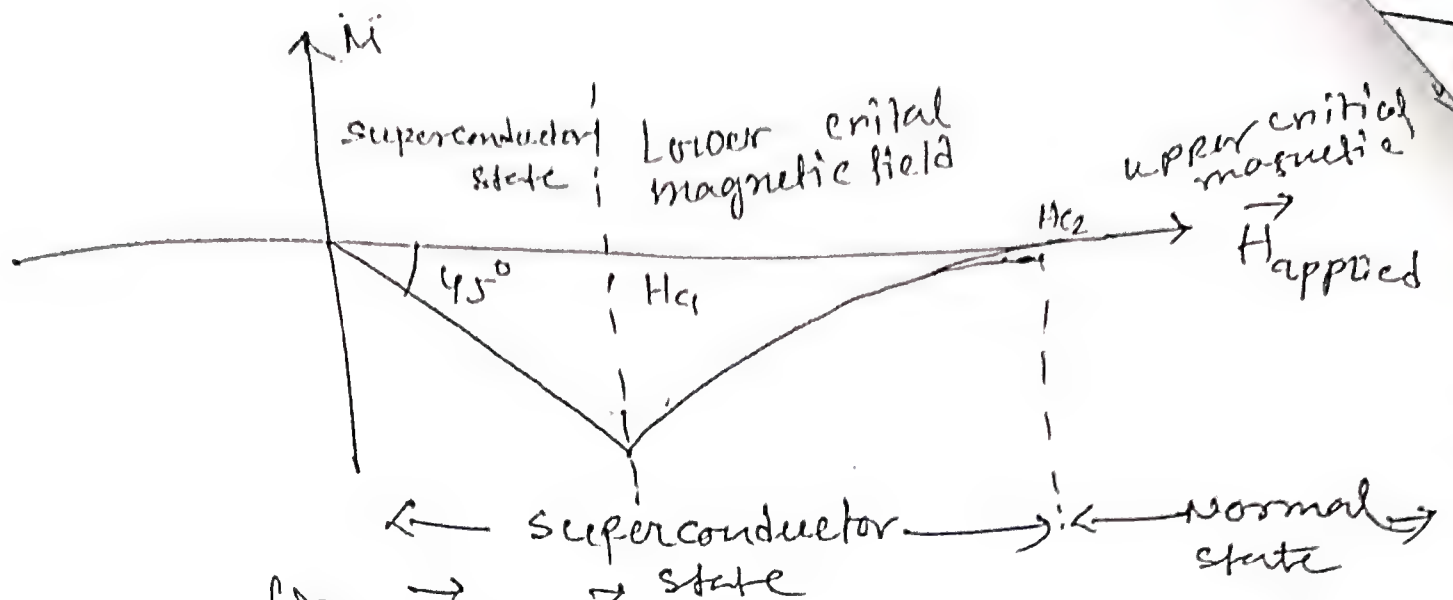


fig:-  $\vec{H}$  vs  $H_{\text{applied}}$  for Type-2 Super Conductor

Upper critical magnetic field of Type-2 Super-conductor is very high nearly 30-60 Tesla depending on superconductor.

(\*) Critical magnetic field of a Type-1 Superconductor in '0' Kelvin is 0.3 Tesla and critical temperature 15K. Find the critical magnetic field at  $T=5K$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 \rightarrow H_c(T) &= H_c(0) \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{T}{T_c} \right)^2 \right] \\
 &= 0.3 \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{5}{15} \right)^2 \right] \\
 &= 0.3 \times \frac{8}{9} \\
 &= 0.267 \text{ T}
 \end{aligned}$$

Q1) Derive London's eqn<sup>n</sup> of super conductivity?

(i) Find an expression for London Penetration Depth. Hence Define London Penetration Depth?

(ii) Write down the relation between London Penetration Depth and temp?

→ The electrodynamic equations of the superconductor was given by Heinz and Fritz London.

As discussed in Meissner effect the magnetic field inside the superconductor is not drop zero suddenly. The penetration of magnetic field through a superconductor is explained by using London's equation.

London's considered that there are two types of electron inside a superconductor,

- Superconducting electron
- normal electron.

1st London eqn<sup>n</sup> -

We considered,  $n_s$  is number density of superconducting electron.

$v_s$  = velocity of superconducting electron.

Force on superconducting electron due to electric field =  $-eE$

$E$  = applied electric field.

$e$  = charge.

$$\therefore m \frac{dv_s}{dt} = -eE \rightarrow (1)$$

current density,  $J = -n_s v_s e$ ,

$$\text{or } v_s = -\frac{J_s}{en_s}, \text{ where, } v_s = \text{velocity of superconducting electron,}$$

$$\frac{dv_s}{dt} = -\frac{1}{en_s} \cdot \frac{dJ_s}{dt} \rightarrow (2)$$

Replacing eqn (2) in (1)  $\Rightarrow$

$$-m \frac{1}{en_s} \cdot \frac{dJ_s}{dt} = -eE$$

$J_s$  = superconducting current density.

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dJ_s}{dt} = \frac{e^2 n_s E}{m}, \text{ This is known as London's first equation.}$$

2nd London equation:

$$\frac{dJ_s}{dt} = \frac{e^2 n_s E}{m} \dots \text{first London equation} \rightarrow (3)$$

Taking curl on the both side of eqn (3)

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \left( \frac{d\vec{J}_s}{dt} \right) = \frac{e^2 n_s}{m} (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) \rightarrow (4)$$

from Maxwell eqn,

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

from (4),

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \left( \frac{d\vec{J}_s}{dt} \right) = -\frac{e^2 n_s}{m} \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

$e$  = charge of  $e^-$

$n_s$  = number of superconducting  $e^-$  per unit volume.

$m$  = mass of  $e^-$



$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \{ \vec{v} \times \vec{J}_s \} = - \frac{e n_s}{m} \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \{ \vec{v} \times \vec{J}_s \} = - \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left\{ \frac{e n_s}{m} \vec{B} \right\} \rightarrow (III)$$

Integrating both side of equ<sup>n</sup> (III) w.r. to time (t).

$$\int \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\vec{v} \times \vec{J}_s) dt = - \int \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{e n_s}{m} \vec{B} \right) dt$$

$$\boxed{\vec{v} \times \vec{J}_s = - \frac{e n_s}{m} \vec{B}}$$

This is known as London 2nd equ<sup>n</sup> of super conductivity.

$$\text{again } \vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{J}_s = \vec{\nabla} \times \left( - \frac{e n_s}{m} \vec{A} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{J}_s = - \frac{e^2 n_s}{m} \vec{A}}$$

From Ampere's law of magnetism;

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I$$

Using Stokes theorem,

$$I_s = \text{Superconducting current} = \iint \vec{J}_s \cdot d\vec{s}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J}_s \quad (9) \quad \vec{J}_s = \text{Superconducting current density}$$

Taking curl on the both side of equ<sup>n</sup> (9),

$$\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) = \mu_0 (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{J}_s)$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B}) - \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B}) = \mu_0 \left\{ \vec{\nabla} \times \left( - \frac{n_s e^2}{m} \vec{A} \right) \right\}$$

$$2) -\nabla^2 \vec{B} = -\frac{\mu_0 n_s e^2}{m} (\vec{v} \times \vec{A}) \quad \begin{cases} \vec{v} \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \\ \vec{v} \times \vec{A} = \vec{B} \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla^2 \vec{B} = -\frac{\mu_0 n_s e^2}{m} \vec{B}}$$

for one dimension,

$$\epsilon_0 \rightarrow F/m$$

$$\mu_0 \rightarrow H/m$$

$$\therefore \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\mu_0 n_s e^2}{m} \vec{B}$$

$$\frac{m}{\mu_0 n_s e^2} = [L^2],$$

$$\frac{m}{\mu_0 n_s e^2} = \frac{M}{[L^2 T^{-2}]}$$

$$[n_s] = [L^{-3}]$$

$$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu_0 \epsilon_0 = \frac{1}{c^2}$$

$$c = \frac{Q}{QV}$$

$$[\epsilon_0] = \frac{[FT]^{-2}}{[ML^2 T^{-2}]}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu_0 \left[ \frac{J^2 T^2}{ML^3 T^{-2}} \right] = \frac{1}{[LT]^{-2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu_0 = \left[ \frac{ML^3 T^{-2}}{J^2 T^2 L^2 T^{-2}} \right]$$

$$= \left[ \frac{ML T^{-2}}{J^2} \right]$$

$$[e] = [JT]$$

$$\lambda_L = \left( \frac{m}{\mu_0 n_s e^2} \right)$$

$$\lambda_L = [L] = \text{penetration depth,}$$

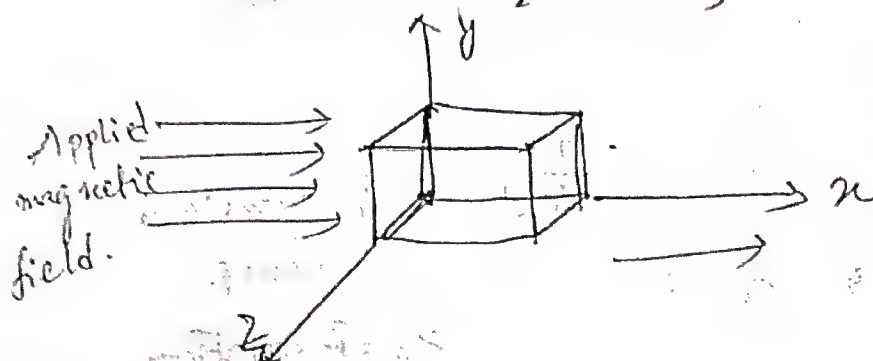
$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{\lambda_L^2} \vec{B}$$

$$2) \left( \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}}{\partial x^2} - \frac{1}{\lambda_L^2} \vec{B} \right) = 0$$

$$\nabla^2 \vec{m} = \frac{1}{\lambda_L^2} \vec{m}$$

$$1) \quad m = \pm \frac{1}{\lambda_L}$$

$$2) \quad \vec{B} = c_1 e^{-\frac{x}{\lambda_L}} + c_2 e^{\frac{x}{\lambda_L}}$$



$\vec{B}$  = magnetic lines of force through Super Conductor.

The 2nd term indicate magnetic induction increase with distance from the surface of superconductor which is not true,

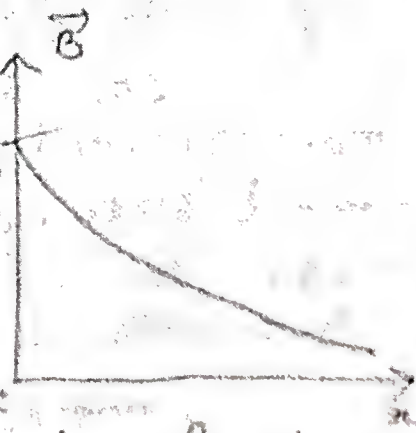
$$\vec{B} = c_1 e^{-x/\lambda_L}$$

Let, at,  $x=0$  (at the surface superconductor) -

$\vec{B} = \vec{B}_0$ ,  $c_1 = \vec{B}_0$  (magnetic at the surface)

$$\vec{B} = \vec{B}_0 e^{-x/\lambda_L}$$

The distance at which the magnetic field become  $\frac{1}{e}$  times of magnetic field at the surface of superconductor is called London Penetration depth ( $\lambda_L$ ).





The penetration depth  $\lambda_L$  is directly depends on temperature ( $T$ ); with increase in temp. from transition Temp. ( $T_c$ )  $\lambda_L$  will increase.

The empirical relation between  $\lambda_L$  and  $T$ ;

$$\lambda_L = \lambda_0 \left[ 1 - \frac{T}{T_c} \right]^{-1/2}; \quad T_c = \text{transition temp.}$$

at  $T = T_c \Rightarrow \lambda_L = \infty$

$\lambda_0$  = Penetration depth at 0

(\*) compare between entropy of kelvin.

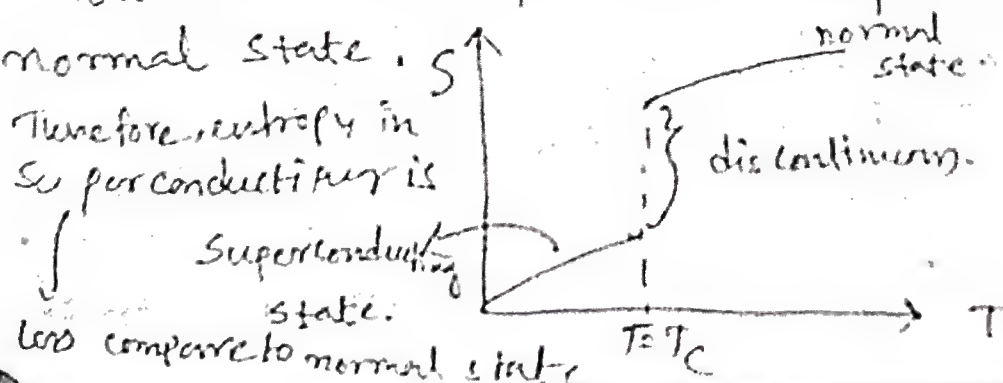
superconducting state and normal state?

→ At superconducting state the resistance of superconductor is almost zero - and in normal state due to electron-electron collision and electron-lattice point collision there is a significant resistance.

So, superconducting state is more ordered system as compare to normal state.

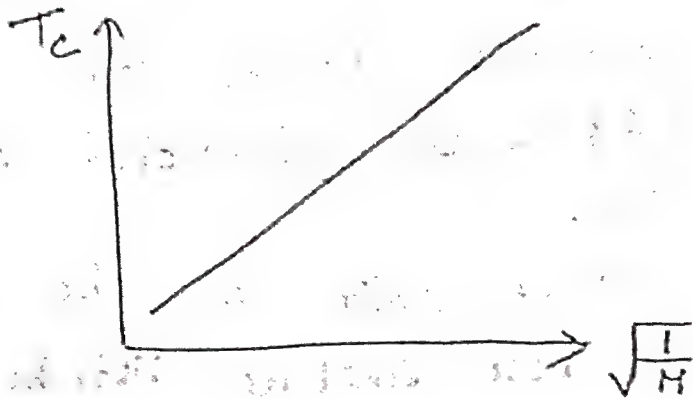
Therefore, entropy in superconductor is

less compare to normal state.



(\*) Discuss the variation of transition temp. with mass of the superconductor?

→ In 1950, E. H. Hall and Reynolds, experimentally discover relation between transition temperature ( $T_c$ ) and isotopic mass of superconductor by using isotopes of ~~Cop~~ Hg.



M = mass of isotope.

$$T_c \propto \sqrt{\frac{1}{M}}$$

→ Experimental result.

$Hg^{200}$ ,  $Hg^{202}$ ,  
 $Hg^{201}$

(\*) Calculate the value of London

Penetration depth  $\lambda_0$  at 0 K for Lead whose density is  $11.3 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3$  and the atomic weight is 207.19 &  $T_c$  is 7.22 K.

$$\lambda_L^2 = \frac{4\pi m}{\mu_0 n_s e^2}$$

$$\lambda_L = \sqrt{\frac{207.19 \times 1.6 \times 10^{-27}}{4\pi \times 10^{-3} \times 11.3 \times 10^3 \times 1.6 \times 10^{19}}} = 207.19 \times 1.6 \times 10^{-27}$$

$n_s$  = Superconducting density

$11.3 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3$

$M = 207.19 \text{ amu}$

$= 207.19 \times 1.6 \times 10^{-27}$

(\*) What is Cooper Pair in BCS Theory?

→ In solid state physics a Cooper pair or BCS pair (Bardeen-Cooper-Schrieffer) is a loosely bound pair of  $e^-$ 's with opposite spins and moving with the same speed at low temp. This Cooper pair is responsible for superconducting behaviour of material.

The concept of Cooper pair is first described by American physicist Leon Cooper in 1956.

Cooper pair is a boson particle and it obeys Bose-Einstein distribution.

(\*) Write a short note on BCS theory.

(or)

Explain qualitatively the main features of BCS theory?

- (i) In a nutshell, BCS theory proposed that in superconducting states at a very low temperature, two electrons form pair known as Cooper pair. Thus all the  $e^-$ 's are paired and formed large number of Cooper pairs.
- (ii) By overcoming the mutual repulsion, the pairing of  $e^-$ 's becomes possible due to the exchange of a quantum of phonon between two electrons.



(iii) The quanta of phonons are formed due to lattice vibrations with Debye frequency. The energy of a quantum of phonon is,  $\Delta = \hbar \omega_D$ .

(iv) This energy  $\Delta = \hbar \omega_D$  acts as the binding energy for the two electrons in the Cooper pair.

(v) Since the lattice vibrates continuously with the continuous emission of quanta of phonons hence all the Cooper pairs move as a single train through the lattice in coherence with the lattice vibration.

(vi) This quantum train of Cooper pairs is described as macroscopic quantum state with a single wavefunction:

$\Psi = \Psi_0 e^{i\phi}$   
All the electrons have same phase  $\phi$ .

(vii) The square of the amplitude of this wave function is equal to the density of Cooper pairs or super electron density  $n_s$ .  
 $|\Psi_0|^2 = n_s$

(viii) All the experimental observation in superconducting states namely lowering of entropy, falling of specific heat, Isotope effect can be explained explicitly by BCS theory.



(\*) Write down the characteristics. "Superconductivity"  
→ the main characteristics of superconductivity  
are —

(i) Superconductor's has zero resistance/  
infinite conductivity below the  
critical temp. / transition temp.

(ii) Super conductors repulse external  
magnetic field, behave as perfect diamagnet,  
this phenomenon is known as Meissner effect.

(iii) Every superconductor has a specific  
critical temp. / transition temp. below  
which the conductor behave as super-  
conductor and at other temp.'s behave  
as normal conductor.

(iv) Every Super conductor has a critical  
magnetic field and critical current  
density. If the external magnetic field  
is greater than critical magnetic field,  
The Super conductivity will be destroyed. Similarly  
if the current density of superconductor  
is greater than critical current density,  
the super conductivity will be destroyed.

(v) the critical current density and critical  
magnetic field of superconductor changes  
with temp. below the transition temp.

or critical temp.

(vi) The external magnetic field applied to a superconductor is not instantly become zero, on the surface of superconductor, the external magnetic field decreases exponentially with distance from the surface of the superconductor. The distance or depth at which the external magnetic field is become  $\frac{1}{e}$  of times of maximum magnetic field inside the superconductor is known as London penetration depth / London penetration length.



(1) Difference between molecular bond and metallic bond?

→ Molecular

metallic

(i) It is weaker than metallic bond.

(i) It is stronger than molecular bond.

(ii) They have low melting point and boiling point.

(ii) They have high ~~comparable to~~ melting point and boiling point compared to molecular bond.

(2) → First part - Unit I

(\*) The Brillouin Zone is defined as the Wigner-Seitz cell of the reciprocal lattice.  
Primitive, reciprocal

